

1 Introduction

This tutorial presents an introduction to the ARM Cortex-A9* processor, which is a processor implemented as a hardware block in the Intel® Cyclone® V SoC FPGA devices. The tutorial is intended for a user who wishes to use an ARM-based system on Intel's DE1-SOC board.

A full description of ARM processors is provided in the *ARM Architecture Reference Manual*, which is available on the ARM Holdings web site.

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2 Overview of ARM Cortex-A9* Processor Features

The ARM Cortex-A9 processor has mostly a Reduced Instruction Set Computer (RISC) architecture. Its arithmetic and logic operations are performed on operands in the general-purpose registers. The data is moved between the memory and these registers by means of *Load* and *Store* instructions.

The word-length of the processor is 32 bits. Data byte addresses in a 32-bit word are assigned in *little-endian* style, in which the lower byte addresses are used for the less significant bytes (the rightmost bytes) of the word.

3 Register Structure

All registers in the ARM Cortex-A9 processor are 32 bits long. There are 15 general-purpose registers, R0 to R14, a Program Counter, R15, and a Current Program Status Register, CPSR, as shown in Figure 1. All general-purpose registers can be used in the same way. However, software programs usually treat two of them in a special way. Register R13 is used as a Stack Pointer. Register R14 is used as a Link Register in subroutine linkage. In assembly-language programs, the registers R15, R14 and R13 can also be referred to by using the acronyms PC, LR and SP, respectively. In assembly-language programs, the register names can be written either in upper or lower case. Thus, R1, R2, PC, LR and SP is equivalent to r1, r2, pc, lr and sp.

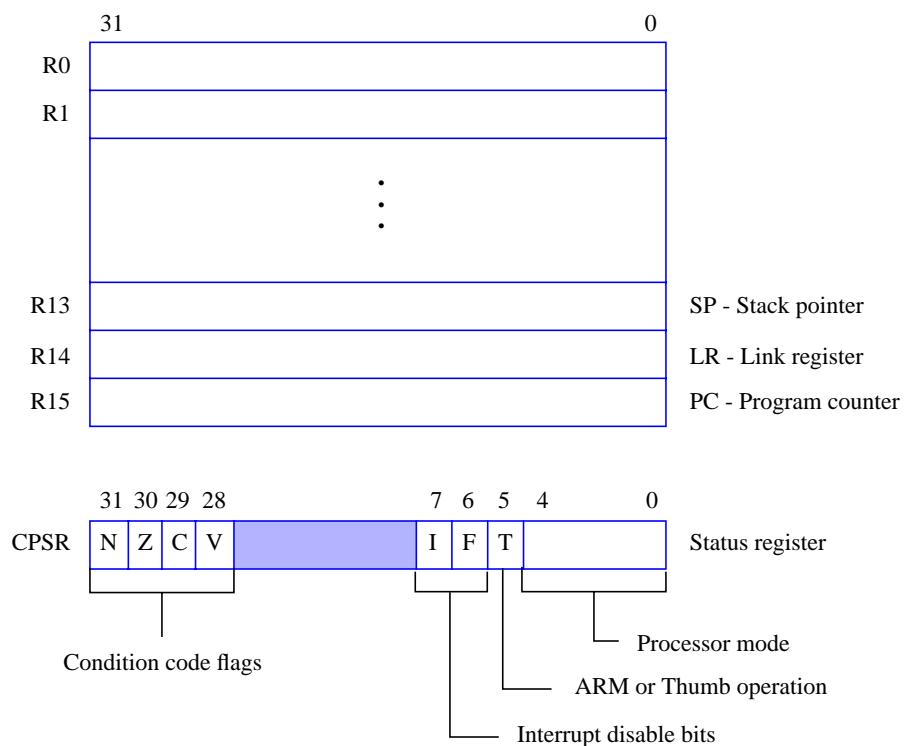


Figure 1. ARM register structure.

The CPSR register has the following contents:

- Condition Code flags which are set based on the results of a previous operation. Most ARM instructions can be executed conditionally based on the values of these flags:
 - Negative (N) - set to 1 if the result is negative; otherwise, cleared to 0
 - Zero (Z) - set to 1 if the result is 0; otherwise, cleared to 0.
 - Carry (C) - set to 1 if a carry-out results from the operation; otherwise, cleared to 0.
 - Overflow (V) - set to 1 if arithmetic overflow occurs; otherwise cleared to 0.
- Interrupt-disable bits, I and F, where
 - I = 1 disables the IRQ interrupts
 - F = 1 disables FIQ interrupts
- Thumb bit, where
 - T = 0 indicates ARM execution
 - T = 1 indicates Thumb execution
- Processor mode bits which identify the mode in which the processor is operating, as explained in Section 9.

For some registers, there are duplicate registers, called *banked* registers, for saving the contents of primary registers when various types of interrupts occur, as discussed in Section 10.

4 Instruction Sets

The ARM Cortex-A9 processor can execute instructions in three different instruction sets, known as ARM, Thumb* and Thumb*-2.

The ARM set is the most powerful. All instructions are 32 bits long. The instructions are stored in memory in word-aligned manner.

The Thumb set is a smaller version, where the instructions are provided in a format that uses only 16 bits. This usually results in smaller memory requirements, which can be useful in embedded applications.

The Thumb-2 set includes both 16- and 32-bit instructions. Its functionality is almost identical to that of the ARM instruction set.

In this tutorial we will deal only with the ARM instruction set. We should note that there exists a *Unified Assembler Language (UAL)*, which provides a common syntax for ARM and Thumb instructions. It supersedes the previous versions of both the ARM and Thumb assembler languages. We will use UAL in this tutorial.

5 Accessing Memory and I/O Devices

Any input/output devices that can be accessed by the ARM processor are memory mapped and can be accessed as memory locations. Data accesses to memory locations and I/O interfaces are performed by means of Load and Store instructions, which cause data to be transferred between the memory and general-purpose registers. The ARM processor issues 32-bit addresses. The memory space is byte-addressable. Instructions can read and write *words* (32 bits), *halfwords* (16 bits), or *bytes* (8 bits) of data.

5.1 Addressing Modes for Load and Store Instructions

The Load and Store instructions are the only type of instructions that can access memory locations. Load instructions copy the contents of a memory location specified by an addressing mode into a destination register, which is a general-purpose register, *Rd*. Store instructions copy the contents of a general-purpose register, *Rd*, into a memory location specified by an addressing mode.

An addressing mode provides the information needed to determine the address of the desired memory location. There are different ways of specifying the required address. All addressing modes involve one or two general-purpose registers, plus some additional information. One register is referred to as the *base* register, *Rn*. If a second register is used, it is referred to as the *index* register, *Rm*. The memory address is determined by adding the contents of the base register and a value that is either given as a signed 12-bit *offset* directly in the instruction or as a magnitude in the index register. The magnitude in *Rm* can be scaled by shifting it either left or right a number of bit-positions specified in the instruction.

There are three primary addressing modes provided:

- *Offset* mode – the address is determined by adding the contents of a base register and an offset that is either given directly in the instruction or in an index register.
- *Pre-indexed* mode – the address is determined in the same way as in the Offset mode; subsequently, this address replaces the contents of the base register used.
- *Post-indexed* mode – the address is the contents of a base register; subsequently, the base register is loaded with a new address that is determined in the same way as in the Offset mode.

These addressing modes are fully specified in Table 1, which indicates how the address generation is performed. The table also gives the required Assembler syntax.

When an index register is specified, its contents are interpreted as a magnitude which can be either added to or subtracted from a base register. This magnitude can first be shifted left or right by specifying LSL #k or LSR #k, respectively, where k is an integer from 1 to 31. Shifting operations are discussed further in section 6.7.

Since the Program Counter, R15, can be treated as a general-purpose register, it can be used in the Offset addressing mode as a base register, *Rn*. This makes it possible to access memory locations in terms of their distance relative to the current address in R15. This mode is often referred to as the *Relative* addressing mode.

TABLE 1. Memory addressing modes

Name	Assembler syntax	Address generation
Offset:		
immediate offset	$[Rn, \#offset]$	Address = $Rn + offset$
offset in Rm	$[Rn, \pm Rm, shift]$	Address = $Rn \pm Rm$ shifted
Pre-indexed:		
immediate offset	$[Rn, \#offset]!$	Address = $Rn + offset$; $Rn \leftarrow$ address
offset in Rm	$[Rn, \pm Rm, shift]!$	Address = $Rn \pm Rm$ shifted; $Rn \leftarrow$ address
Post-indexed:		
immediate offset	$[Rn], \#offset$	Address = Rn ; $Rn \leftarrow Rn + offset$
offset in Rm	$[Rn], \pm Rm, shift$	Address = Rn ; $Rn \leftarrow Rn \pm Rm$ shifted

offset = a signed number given in the instruction

shift = direction #integer

where direction is LSL for left shift or LSR for right shift, and

integer is a 5-bit unsigned number specifying the shift amount

$\pm Rm$ = the magnitude in register Rm that is added to or subtracted from the contents of base register Rn

Consider the *Load* instruction, LDR, which loads a 32-bit operand into a register. The instruction

LDR R2, [R6, #-8]

loads R2 from the address in R6 minus 8. The instruction

LDR R2, [R6, #0x200]

loads R2 from the address in R6 plus the hexadecimal number 0x200. The instruction

LDR R2, [R6, -R8]

loads R2 from the address obtained by subtracting the contents of R8 from the contents of R6.

The Pre-indexed mode is illustrated in

```
LDR R2, [R6, R8, LSL #4]!
```

which loads R2 from the location whose address is determined by shifting the contents of R8 to the left by 4 bit-positions (which is equivalent to multiplying by 16) and adding the result to the contents of R6. Subsequently, the generated address is loaded into R6.

An example of Post-indexed mode is

```
LDR R2, [R6], #20
```

where R6 contains the address of the location from which an operand is loaded into R2. Subsequently, the contents of R6 are modified by adding to them the offset value 20.

Relative addressing can be used simply by specifying the address label associated with the desired memory location. For example, if MEMLOC is the desired location, then the instruction

```
LDR R2, MEMLOC
```

will load the contents of memory location MEMLOC into register R2. The assembler will determine the immediate offset as the difference between the address MEMLOC and the contents of the updated Program Counter. It will generate the instruction

```
LDR R2, [R15, #offset]
```

This offset takes into account the fact that when the instruction is to be executed, the Program Counter will already be incremented by 8, because the ARM processor will already have fetched the next instruction (due to pipelined execution).

5.2 Format for Load and Store Instructions

The format for Load and Store instructions is shown in Figure 2. The operation code (OP-code) is provided in bits 27 to 20. The register *Rd*, which is used as the destination in load instructions or as the source in store instructions, is identified by bits 15 to 12. The base register, *Rn*, is identified by bits 19 to 16. Bits 11 to 0 may contain a signed 12-bit offset or identify an index register. If an index register is used, its number, *m*, is given in the low-order four bits of the instruction.

Observe, in Figure 2, that the high-order four bits denote a condition for the instruction. In ARM processors, most instructions can be executed conditionally, as explained in Section 6.11.

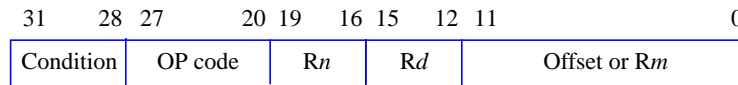


Figure 2. Format for Load and Store instructions.

6 ARM* Instructions

ARM instructions are 32-bits long. In addition to machine instructions that are executed directly by the processor, the ARM instruction set includes a number of *pseudo-instructions* that can be used in assembly language programs. The Assembler replaces each pseudo-instruction by one or more machine instructions.

This section discusses briefly the main features of the ARM instruction set. For a complete description of the instruction set, including the details of how each instruction is encoded, the reader should consult the *ARM Architecture Reference Manual*.

6.1 Load and Store Instructions

Load and store instructions are used to move data between memory (and I/O interfaces) and the general-purpose registers. The LDR (Load Register) instruction, illustrated in the previous section, loads a 32-bit operand into a register. The corresponding *Store* instruction is STR (Store Register). For example,

STR R2, [R4]

copies the contents of R2 into memory location at the address that is found in register R4.

There are also load and store instructions that use operands that are only 8 or 16 bits long. They are referred to as Load/Store Byte and Load/Store Halfword instructions, respectively. Such load instructions are:

- LDRB (Load Register Byte)
- LDRSB (Load Register Signed Byte)
- LDRH (Load Register Halfword)
- LDRSH (Load Register Signed Halfword)

When a shorter operand is loaded into a 32-bit register, its value has to be adjusted to fit into the register. This is done by zero-extending the 8- or 16-bit value to 32 bits in the LDRB and LDRH instructions. In the LDRSB and LDRSH instructions the operand is sign-extended.

The corresponding *Store* instructions are:

- STRB (Store Register Byte)

- STRH (Store Register Halfword)

The STRB instruction stores the low byte of register *Rd* into the memory byte specified by the address. The STRH instruction stores the low halfword of register *Rd*.

6.1.1 Loading and Storing Multiple Registers

There are two instructions that allow loading of data into multiple registers, LDM (Load Multiple), and storing the contents of multiple registers into memory, STM (Store Multiple). The memory operands must be in successive word locations. These instructions are useful for two main purposes:

- transferring blocks of data between memory and processor registers, and
- saving data in registers on a stack, and then later restoring the registers from the stack

The address of the first word in memory is given in the base register, *Rn*. Upon transferring the last word of data, the contents of *Rn* can be updated with the last address by specifying the Pre-indexed (!) addressing mode.

An instruction must specify the registers involved in the transfer. The registers must be listed in the assembly-language instruction in a field enclosed by braces, but they do not have to be contiguous. A range of registers is specified by listing the first and the last registers in the range, separated by a dash (–). In the resulting machine instruction, each register is identified by setting a corresponding bit in the field comprising the low-order 16 bits. Registers are always stored by STM in the order from largest-to-smallest register-index (R15, R14, R13, ..., R0), and loaded by LDM in the order from the smallest-to-largest register-index (R0, R1, R2, ..., R15).

The instruction must also indicate the direction in which memory addresses are computed. For block transfers there are four possibilities for determining the addresses of consecutive data words. The address can be incremented or decremented by 4 either before or after each data item is accessed. The desired action is specified by appending a suffix to the OP-code mnemonic in the assembly-language instruction. The four suffixes are:

- IA – Increment After
- IB – Increment Before
- DA – Decrement After
- DB – Decrement Before

For example, the instruction

LDMIA R3!, {R4, R6–R8, R10}

will load registers R4, R6, R7, R8 and R10. If the starting address in R3 is 1000, then the data loaded into the registers will be from addresses 1000, 1004, 1008, 1012 and 1016, respectively. Because the Pre-indexed mode is specified, the final contents of R3 will be 1020.

The LDM and STM instructions are very useful in the context of subroutines, where they can be used to save the contents of registers on the stack. For this purpose, there exist pseudo-instructions PUSH and POP, which are actually implemented as particular forms of STM and LDM instructions. In these instructions the Stack Pointer, SP, is the base register, which is always updated. The SP is decremented by 4 before each transfer in PUSH instructions, and it is incremented by 4 after each transfer in POP instructions. For example, the instruction

$$\text{PUSH } \{R1, R3-R5\}$$

places the contents of registers R5, R4, R3 and R1 onto the stack. The equivalent *Store Multiple* instruction is

$$\text{STMDB } SP!, \{R1, R3-R5\}$$

The instruction

$$\text{POP } \{R1, R3-R5\}$$

restores the contents of these registers from the stack. The equivalent *Load Multiple* instruction would be

$$\text{LDMIA } SP!, \{R1, R3-R5\}$$

6.2 Data Processing Instructions

A variety of ARM instructions are provided for the processing of data, including instructions that perform shifting, arithmetic operations, logical operations, and data transfer between registers.

6.3 Flexible Operands

A number of data processing instructions have the general form

$$\text{OP } Rd, Rn, \textit{Operand2}$$

where *Rd* is the destination register, *Rn* is the first operand, and *Operand2* is the second operand. A considerable amount of flexibility is provided by *Operand2*. It can be an immediate constant, as in

$$\text{OP } Rd, Rn, \textit{\#value}$$

This instruction performs the operation *OP* using the contents of *Rn* and the constant *value*, and places the result into *Rd*. For example, if *OP* is the addition instruction ADD, then

$$\text{ADD } R0, R1, \#1$$

adds 1 to the contents of R1 and places the sum into R0. The constant *value* can be specified as a decimal number, as in this example, or as a binary value #0b1, or as a hexadecimal value #0x1. Valid constants include any eight-bit value, such as 0xFF. The eight-bit value can also be produced by rotation in a 32-bit word—for example, other valid constants include 0xFF000000, 0xFF0000, and 0xFF00. In general, the constant can be any value which can be generated by rotating a byte to the right any *even* number of times (0, 2, ..., 30) in a 32-bit word (see the *ARM Assembler Reference* for more details).

Alternatively, *Operand2* can be given as a register *Rm*, as in

OP *Rd, Rn, Rm*

This instruction performs the operation *OP* using the contents of *Rn* and *Rm*, and places the result into *Rd*. For example

ADD R0, R1, R2

adds the contents of R1 and R2, and places the sum into R0.

When *Operand2* is a register, *Rm* can either be used directly, as in the above example, or else its value can be shifted before being used. If it is shifted, then the shifting amount can be specified as a five-bit constant, as in

OP *Rd, Rn, Rm, LSL #3*

or as the least-significant byte of a register *Rs*, as in

OP *Rd, Rn, Rm, LSL Rs*

In these examples LSL means *Logical Shift Left*. Other examples of shift variants include right-shift, and rotate operations, as discussed in section 6.7.

6.3.1 Using Condition Code Flags

The data processing instructions can optionally affect the ARM condition code flags, or can be executed conditionally based on the values of the condition code flags. These options are expressed in the general form

OP{S}{cond} *Rd, Rn, Operand2*

If *S* is included in the instruction mnemonic, as in ADDS, then the condition code flags will be set depending on the results of the instruction. But if *S* is not included, as in ADD, then the flags are unaffected by the instruction. Setting of the condition code flags is discussed further in Section 6.9.

An optional *cond* appended to an instruction mnemonic allows an instruction to be either executed or skipped, depending on the current values of the condition code flags. This concept is discussed in Section 6.10.

6.4 Arithmetic Instructions

As illustrated above, an arithmetic operation such as

ADD *Rd*, *Rn*, *Operand2*

adds the contents of *Rn* and the value determined as *Operand2* into *Rd*. For example, the instruction

ADD R0, R1, R2, LSL #2

adds the contents of R1 and a shifted version of the contents of R2, and places the sum into R0. The operand R2 is shifted to the left by 2 bit positions (which is equivalent to integer multiplication by 4) before it is used in the addition.

In an assembly-language instruction, it is possible to specify a negative number as the immediate operand, as in

ADD R0, R1, #-24

The Assembler will implement this operation with the Subtract instruction

SUB R0, R1, #24

6.4.1 Multiplication

There are two versions of multiplication instructions:

- MUL – (Multiply)
- MLA – (Multiply Accumulate)

The Multiply instruction

MUL R2, R4, R5

multiplies the contents of registers R4 and R5, and places a 32-bit product into register R2. If the generated product exceeds 32 bits, then the low-order 32 bits are retained and the high-order bits are discarded.

The MLA instruction multiplies the operands in two registers to produce a 32-bit product, which is then added to the third operand, and the result is written into the destination register. Thus,

MLA R2, R4, R5, R6

multiplies the numbers in R4 and R5, adds to this product the number in R6, and places the result into register R2.

6.5 Logic and Test Instructions

The logic instructions provide the AND, OR and Exclusive-OR operations. The AND instruction

AND *Rd*, *Rn*, *Operand2*

performs a bitwise logical AND of the contents of register *Rn* with the value of *Operand2*, and stores the result in register *Rd*. Similarly, the instructions ORR and EOR perform the OR and Exclusive-OR operations, respectively.

Another useful logic instruction is BIC, which stands for *Bit Clear*. It performs a bitwise AND of the operand in *Rn* with the *complement* of *Operand2*, and stores the result in *Rd*.

There are two instructions that perform logic operations for testing purposes. The *Test* instruction

TST *Rn*, *Operand2*

performs the AND operation using the contents of *Rn* and *Operand2*, and sets the condition code flags based on the result obtained. The *Test Equivalence* instruction

TEQ *Rn*, *Operand2*

compares the value in *Rn* with the value represented by *Operand2*. This is done by exclusive-ORing the two values and setting the condition code flags accordingly.

6.6 Move Instructions

The Move instructions copy the contents of one register into another, or they place an immediate value into a register.

The *Move* instruction

MOV *Rd*, *Operand2*

moves the value of *Operand2* into register *Rd*.

The *Move Negative* instruction

MVN *Rd*, *Operand2*

moves the complement of the value of *Operand2* into *Rd*.

The *Move Top* instruction

```
MOVT Rd, #immed16
```

loads a 16-bit immediate value into the high-order 16 bits of *Rd*, and leaves the low-order 16 bits unchanged.

There are also two special instructions, MRS and MSR, which copy the contents of a processor status register to/from a general-purpose register. These instructions are available only when the processor is running in a privileged mode, as explained in Section 10.

6.6.1 Loading 32-bit Constants into Registers

The simplest approach is to use the load-register pseudo-instruction

```
LDR R2, =0x12345678
```

in which case the Assembler will place this constant, and other constants defined in such manner, into a *literal pool* in the memory, from where it will be taken at execution time. In the assembled code, this LDR instruction will use the Relative addressing mode to access the literal pool. The Assembler decides where in memory to place the literal pool; typically, it is immediately following the program's machine code.

A constant may be represented by a name, say LABEL. For example, LABEL may correspond to the address of some memory location. In that case, this address can be loaded into a register, *Rd*, using the pseudo-instruction

```
LDR Rd, =LABEL
```

Again, the Assembler will place the corresponding 32-bit address into the literal pool.

6.7 Shift and Rotate Instructions

ARM has *shift* and *rotate* instruction mnemonics:

- LSL – Logical Shift Left
- LSR – Logical Shift Right
- ASR – Arithmetic Shift Right
- ROR – Rotate Right

An example of a shift instruction is

```
LSL R2, R5, #4
```

which shifts the value in R5 to the left by four bit-positions (zeros are inserted on the right) and places the result into R2. Since *Operand2* of any instruction can be shifted or rotated, it is possible to use Move instructions mnemonics instead of *shift* and *rotate*. For example, the instruction

```
MOV R2, R5, LSL #4
```

is equivalent to the LSL instruction shown above. Also, the same effect can be achieved with the instruction

```
LSL R2, R5, R6
```

if the contents of R6 are equal to 4. There is also a logical shift right, LSR, instruction, in which bits are shifted to the right with zeros being inserted on the left. Similarly, arithmetic shift right, ASR, performs a shift to the right, but in this case the *sign* bit, b_{31} , is replicated on the left for each shift position. Another example is

```
ROR R3, R3, #8
```

which rotates the contents of R3 to the right by eight bit-positions. In the *rotate* instruction bits shifted out of position b_0 on the right are inserted into position b_{31} on the left, in a circular fashion.

6.8 Comparison Instructions

The comparison instructions compare the contents of two registers or the contents of a register and an immediate value, and set the condition code flags based on the result.

The Compare instruction

```
CMP Rn, Operand2
```

performs the comparison by subtracting the value of *Operand2* from the value in *Rn*. It sets the condition code flags, but it does not change the contents of *Rn*.

The *Compare Negative* instruction

```
CMN Rn, Operand2
```

performs the comparison by adding the value of *Operand2* and the value in *Rn*. It sets the condition code flags, but it does not change the contents of *Rn*.

6.9 Setting of Condition Code Flags

The condition code flags are always affected by the compare instructions, CMP and CMN, and the test instructions, TST and TEQ. Many other instructions can also affect the condition code flags, but this must be specified in the instruction. The data processing instructions (arithmetic, logic and move) affect these flags if the suffix *S* is appended to the assembly-language OP-code mnemonic, as we mentioned in Section 6.3.1.

For example, the instruction

ADDS R2, R3, R4

will set the flags, but

ADD R2, R3, R4

will not.

6.10 Conditional Execution of Instructions

Most ARM instructions can be executed conditionally. The high-order four bits in the machine representation of each instruction, as illustrated in Figure 2, specify a condition that must be met for the instruction to be executed. These conditions are associated with the condition code flags N, Z, C and V. The instruction is executed only if there is a match between the specified condition and the current values of the condition code flags.

The general form of data processing instructions is

OP{S}{*cond*} Rd, Rn, Operand2

The conditions that can be specified are those in Table 2. Observe that there are 14 patterns for conditions that depend on the condition code flags.

For example, the instruction

ADDEQ R2, R3, R4

will be executed if the condition code flag Z is equal to 1. Otherwise, the execution will skip to the next instruction.

The instruction

MOVNE R1, R0

Will transfer the contents of R0 into R1 if the current value of the Z flag is 0. If Z = 1, the Move instruction will not be executed and the processor will skip to the next instruction.

6.11 Branch Instructions

The flow of execution of a program can be changed by executing a *Branch* instruction. It may be changed either conditionally or unconditionally.

A branch instruction is specified as

B{cond_suffix} LABEL

where a suffix is appended to indicate the condition on which a branch is to be taken. The branch target is typically specified as a label. Relative addressing mode is used to define the target address. A 24-bit 2's-complement value is given in the machine instruction to indicate the desired offset from the contents of the Program Counter, which is computed by the Assembler. When the instruction is executed, this offset value is sign-extended to 32 bits. Then, the resulting value is shifted left by two bit-positions because the branch target addresses are word-aligned. Finally, this value is added to the updated contents of the Program Counter. Note that when any instruction is being executed, the updated contents of PC will be the **current contents of PC plus 8**, because of the pipelined operation of the ARM processor.

The branch instruction is executed conditionally, based on the current setting of the Condition Code flags. The conditions that can be specified are given in Table 2. For example, the instruction

BEQ LABEL

causes a branch to location LABEL if the Condition Code flag Z is equal to one when the instruction is being executed.

TABLE 2. Condition field encoding in ARM instructions

Condition field $b_{31} \dots b_{28}$	Condition suffix	Condition name	Condition Code test
0 0 0 0	EQ	Equal (zero)	$Z = 1$
0 0 0 1	NE	Not equal (nonzero)	$Z = 0$
0 0 1 0	CS/HS	Carry set/Unsigned higher or same	$C = 1$
0 0 1 1	CC/LO	Carry clear/Unsigned lower	$C = 0$
0 1 0 0	MI	Minus (negative)	$N = 1$
0 1 0 1	PL	Plus (positive or zero)	$N = 0$
0 1 1 0	VS	Overflow	$V = 1$
0 1 1 1	VC	No overflow	$V = 0$
1 0 0 0	HI	Unsigned higher	$\overline{C} \vee Z = 0$
1 0 0 1	LS	Unsigned lower or same	$\overline{C} \vee Z = 1$
1 0 1 0	GE	Signed greater than or equal	$N \oplus V = 0$
1 0 1 1	LT	Signed less than	$N \oplus V = 1$
1 1 0 0	GT	Signed greater than	$Z \vee (N \oplus V) = 0$
1 1 0 1	LE	Signed less than or equal	$Z \vee (N \oplus V) = 1$
1 1 1 0	AL	Always	
1 1 1 1		not used	

The suffix AL (Always) causes the unconditional branch. The same effect is achieved if there is no suffix appended. The Assembler interprets the instruction

B LABEL

as being the same as

BAL LABEL

6.12 Subroutine Linkage Instructions

Subroutine calls are achieved with the *Branch and Link* instruction

BL *Destination*

where the *Destination* is typically the label of the first instruction in the subroutine. In addition to behaving as a Branch instruction, this instruction saves the return address (which is the address of the instruction that follows the BL instruction) in the Link register, R14.

There is no specific *return-from-subroutine* instruction. The return from a subroutine can be performed by an instruction that loads the contents of R14 into R15, such as

MOV PC, LR

Since LR can hold only one return address, it follows that if nested subroutines are used it is necessary to save the contents of R14, typically on the stack, prior to a nested subroutine call.

We should also mention that in the ARM environment, there is a convention that registers R0 to R4 are used to pass parameters to a subroutine, while register R0 is used to return a result. If more than four parameters are needed, then some of the parameters have to be passed via the stack.

7 Assembler Directives

Assembler directives provide information used by the assembler when assembling an application program. Different assemblers often use different assembler directives. We will restrict our discussion to the assembler that is used by the Intel FPGA Monitor Program. This assembler conforms to the widely used GNU Assembler, which is software available in the public domain. Thus, the GNU Assembler directives can be used in ARM programs intended to be used with the Intel FPGA Monitor Program.

Assembler directives begin with a period. We describe some of the more frequently used assembler directives below.

.ascii *"string"*

A string of ASCII characters is loaded into consecutive byte addresses in the memory. Multiple strings, separated by commas, can be specified. The directive **.asciz** is the same, except that each string is terminated by a zero byte.

.byte *expressions*

Expressions separated by commas are specified. Each expression is assembled into the next byte. Examples of expressions are: 8, 5 + LABEL, and K – 6.

.end

Marks the end of the source code file; everything after this directive is ignored by the assembler.

.equ *symbol, expression*

Sets the value of *symbol* to *expression*.

.global *symbol*

Makes *symbol* visible outside the assembled object file.

.hword *expressions*

Expressions separated by commas are specified. Each expression is assembled into a 16-bit number.

.include *"filename"*

Provides a mechanism for including supporting files in a source program.

.section *arguments*

Allows a named section to be created in the assembly language file. This directive is used, for example, when specifying exception vectors.

.skip *size*

Emits the number of bytes specified in *size*; the value of each byte is zero.

.text

Identifies the code that should be placed in the text section of the memory. The desired memory location for the text section can be specified in the Monitor Program's system configuration window.

.word *expressions*

Expressions separated by commas are specified. Each expression is assembled into a 32-bit number.

8 Example Program

As an illustration of ARM instructions and assembler directives, Figure 3 gives an assembly-language program that computes a dot product of two vectors, *A* and *B*. The vectors have *n* elements. The required computation is

$$\text{Dot product} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} A(i) \times B(i)$$

The vectors are stored in memory locations at addresses *AVECTOR* and *BVECTOR*, respectively. The number of elements, *n*, is stored in memory location *N*. The computed result is written into memory location *DOTP*. Each vector element is assumed to be a signed 32-bit number.

The program includes some sample data. It illustrates how the **.word** assembler directive can be used to load data items into memory. The memory locations involved are those that follow the location occupied by the Branch instruction, B, which is the last instruction in the program. The execution of the program ends by continuously looping on this instruction.

```

        .text
        .global _start
_start:  LDR      R0, =AVECTOR      /* Register R0 is a pointer to vector A. */
        LDR      R1, =BVECTOR      /* Register R1 is a pointer to vector B. */
        LDR      R2, N              /* Register R2 is used as the counter for */
                                      /* loop iterations. */
        MOV      R3, #0             /* Register R3 is used to accumulate the */
                                      /* product. */
LOOP:    LDR      R4, [R0], #4       /* Load the next element of vector A. */
        LDR      R5, [R1], #4       /* Load the next element of vector B. */
        MLA      R3, R4, R5, R3     /* Compute the product of next pair of */
                                      /* elements, and add to the sum. */
        SUBS     R2, R2, #1         /* Decrement the counter. */
        BGT      LOOP              /* Loop again if not finished. */
        STR      R3, DOTP           /* Store the result in memory. */
STOP:    B        STOP

N:       .word    6                 /* Specify the number of elements. */
AVECTOR: .word    5, 3, -6, 19, 8, 12 /* Specify the elements of vector A. */
BVECTOR: .word    2, 14, -3, 2, -5, 36 /* Specify the elements of vector B. */
DOTP:    .space   4                 /* Space for the final dot product. */
        .end

```

Figure 3. A program that computes the dot product of two vectors.

Observe the treatment of labels. In the instruction

```
LDR    R0, =AVECTOR
```

a 32-bit address that denotes the location AVECTOR is loaded into register R0, as explained in Section 6.6.1 But, in the instruction

LDR R2, N

it is the value 6, which is stored at location N, that is loaded into register R2. In both cases, the assembled LDR machine instruction will use Relative addressing to access the source operand.

9 Operating Modes

The ARM processor can operate in a number of different modes, as follows:

- *User* mode – is the basic mode in which application programs run. This is an unprivileged mode, which has restricted access to system resources.
- *System* mode – provides full access to system resources. It can be entered only from one of the exception modes listed below.
- *Supervisor* mode – is entered when a software interrupt is raised by a program executing a Supervisor Call instruction, SVC. It is also entered on reset or power-up.
- *Abort* mode – is entered if a program attempts to access a non-existing memory location.
- *Undefined* mode – is entered if the processor attempts to execute an unimplemented instruction.
- *IRQ* mode – is entered in response to a normal interrupt request from an external device.
- *FIQ* mode – is entered in response to a *fast interrupt* request from an external device. It is used to provide faster service for more urgent requests.

The User mode is unprivileged, and all other modes are privileged. In order to manipulate the contents of the processor status register, the processor must be in one of the privileged modes. The User and System modes use the registers presented in Figure 1. Other modes, which deal with various exceptions, use some other registers, as described in the next section.

The current operating mode is indicated in the processor status bits CPSR₄₋₀, as specified in Table 3.

TABLE 3. Operating Mode Assignment

CPSR₄₋₀	Operating Mode
10000	User
10001	FIQ
10010	IRQ
10011	Supervisor
10111	Abort
11011	Undefined
11111	System

10 Banked Registers

To make the processing of exceptions more efficient, some other registers are involved. These registers are shown in blue in Figure 4. They are called the *banked* registers. There is a different set of banked registers for each exception mode. All exception modes use their own versions of the Stack Pointer, SP_mode, the Link register, LR_mode, and the Status register, SPSR_mode. The FIQ mode also has its own registers R8 to R12, which are called R8_fiq to R12_fiq in the figure.

	User/System	Supervisor	Abort	Undefined	IRQ	FIQ
	R0	R0	R0	R0	R0	R0
	R1	R1	R1	R1	R1	R1
	R2	R2	R2	R2	R2	R2
	R3	R3	R3	R3	R3	R3
	R4	R4	R4	R4	R4	R4
	R5	R5	R5	R5	R5	R5
	R6	R6	R6	R6	R6	R6
	R7	R7	R7	R7	R7	R7
	R8	R8	R8	R8	R8	R8_fiq
	R9	R9	R9	R9	R9	R9_fiq
	R10	R10	R10	R10	R10	R10_fiq
	R11	R11	R11	R11	R11	R11_fiq
	R12	R12	R12	R12	R12	R12_fiq
SP	R13	R13_svc	R13_abt	R13_und	R13_irq	R13_fiq
LR	R14	R14_svc	R14_abt	R14_und	R14_irq	R14_fiq
PC	R15	R15	R15	R15	R15	R15

CPSR	CPSR	CPSR	CPSR	CPSR	CPSR
	SPSR_svc	SPSR_abt	SPSR_und	SPSR_irq	SPSR_fiq

Figure 4. Registers used in various operating modes.

Note that registers R0 to R12 are not banked in most operating modes. Thus, when an exception service routine needs to use some of these registers, the contents of the registers must be saved on the stack and later restored. However, having the five banked registers R8_fiq to R12_fiq in the FIQ mode, it is possible to respond very quickly to a fast interrupt request if these registers are sufficient for the task that is implemented by the corresponding interrupt-service routine.

In Figure 4 and in the above discussion we referred to the specific banked registers by appending a mode specifier, e.g. R14_svc. In an assembly-language program such specifiers are not included, because the processor accesses the desired banked register based on its current operating mode, as indicated by the processor-mode bits, CPSR_{4–0}.

In the Supervisor mode, the special Move instructions, MRS and MSR, can be used to access the processor status registers CPSR and SPSR_svc. The instruction

MRS Rd, CPSR

copies the contents of CPSR into register *Rd*. Writing into the status registers can be done by affecting one or more fields of the register. The processor status registers have four fields of eight bits, identified by the field specifiers *_f*, *_s*, *_x* and *_c*, which correspond to PSR_{31–24}, PSR_{23–16}, PSR_{15–8} and PSR_{7–0}, respectively. Thus, the instruction

MSR CPSR_c, *Rd*

copies the contents of *Rd* into CPSR_{7–0}, which affects only the processor mode and interrupt disable bits. All bits can be affected by the instruction

MSR CPSR_cxsf, *Rd*

We should note that the field specifiers must be used in the MSR instruction; otherwise, an error will occur at compile time.

In an exception mode, such as IRQ, it is the banked saved status register that is accessed. Thus,

MRS *Rd*, SPSR

copies the contents of SPSR_irq into register *Rd*.

11 Exception Processing

An *exception* in the normal flow of program execution can be caused by:

- Software interrupt
- Hardware interrupt
- Attempted accessing of a nonexistent memory location
- Unimplemented instruction

The ARM Cortex-A9 processor uses a vectored exception scheme, in which there is a separate vector of information assigned to each type of exception. This vector normally consists of an instruction that loads into the program counter the address of the first instruction of the corresponding exception-service routine. The vectors are stored in the *exception vector table* at pre-assigned locations. Table 4 gives the assignment of exception vectors in the exception vector table. It also shows the priority levels for the various exceptions and the mode entered upon the occurrence of an exception.

TABLE 4. Exception Vector Table

Address	Exception	Priority	Mode entered
0x000	Reset	1	Supervisor
0x004	Unimplemented instruction	6	Undefined
0x008	Software interrupt	–	Supervisor
0x00C	Instruction access violation	5	Abort
0x010	Data access violation	2	Abort
0x018	IRQ	4	IRQ
0x01C	FIQ	3	FIQ

When an exception occurs in the User mode, the ARM processor switches into the corresponding exception mode and automatically performs the following actions:

- Saves the contents of the Program Counter in the banked Link register, LR_mode.
- Saves the contents of the processor status register, CPSR, in the banked status register, SPSR_mode.
- Changes the mode bits in CPSR to denote the exception mode, and sets the interrupt-disable bits, I and F, accordingly.
- Loads the Program Counter, PC, with a vector address for the exception that caused the action. At this address in the exception table there is an instruction that is executed next.

11.1 Software Interrupt

A software interrupt, which is called a *software exception* in ARM literature, occurs when an SVC instruction is encountered in a program. This instruction causes the processor to switch into Supervisor mode. The address of the next instruction is saved in the banked register LR_svc and the contents of CPSR are saved in SPSR_svc. Then, the address of entry 8 in the exception vector table is loaded into the Program Counter. A branch instruction at that location leads to the required exception-service routine.

Upon completion of the exception-service routine, a return to the interrupted program can be realized with the instruction

```
MOVS PC, LR
```

Note that the suffix S in the OP-code mnemonic normally specifies that the Condition Code flags should be set. However, when the destination register is PC, the suffix S causes the saved contents in register SPSR_mode, in this case SPSR_svc, to be loaded into the processor status register CPSR. Since this instruction also loads the saved return address into PC, a return to the interrupted program is completed.

A common use of the software interrupt is to transfer control to a different program, such as an operating system.

11.2 Hardware Interrupts

Hardware interrupts can be raised by external sources, such as I/O devices, by asserting one of the processor's interrupt-request inputs, IRQ or FIQ. When the processor receives a hardware interrupt request, it enters the corresponding exception mode to service the interrupt. It also saves the contents of PC and CPSR.

The saved contents of the PC are supposed to be the return address. However, this is not the case with the ARM Cortex-A9 processor. This processor prefetches instructions for execution. While the current instruction is being executed, the next instruction is prefetched and its processing is started. This means that the Program Counter points to the instruction after the prefetched one. Namely, the updated contents of PC are the address of the current instruction plus 8. Since the interrupt is serviced upon completion of the current instruction, the next prefetched instruction is discarded and it must be executed upon return from the interrupt. Therefore, the address saved in the link register must be decremented by 4 prior to returning to the interrupted program. This can be done by having

```
SUBS PC, LR, #4
```

as the last instruction in the exception-service routine. Note that the suffix S causes a proper return to the interrupted program, as explained above.

11.2.1 IRQ Interrupts

Upon accepting an IRQ interrupt request, the processor saves the contents of CPSR in the SPSR_irq register, and it saves the contents of PC in the link register LR_irq. It also sets the mode bits in CPSR to denote the IRQ exception mode, and it sets the I bit to 1 to disable further IRQ interrupts. Then, it executes the instruction at location 0x018 of the exception vector table, which has to cause a branch that leads to the IRQ exception-service routine.

The return from the exception-service routine should be performed with the instruction

```
SUBS PC, LR, #4
```

11.2.2 FIQ Interrupts

An FIQ interrupt request is raised by a device that needs fast response. Upon accepting the request, the processor saves the contents of CPSR in the SPSR_fiq register, and it saves the contents of PC in the link register LR_fiq. It also sets the mode bits in CPSR to denote the FIQ exception mode, and it sets the F and I bits to 1 to disable further interrupts. Then, it executes the instruction at location 0x01C of the exception vector table. Since this is the last location in the exception vector table, it can actually hold the first instruction of the FIQ exception-service routine (instead of an instruction that causes a branch to the FIQ exception-service routine), which speeds up the response to the FIQ request.

In the FIQ mode there are five additional banked registers, R8_fiq to R12_fiq, which means that the exception-service routine can use these registers without first having to save the contents of R8 to R12 on the stack. This leads to a faster response.

The return from the exception-service routine should be performed with the instruction

SUBS PC, LR, #4

11.3 Unimplemented Instruction

This exception occurs when the processor encounters a valid instruction that is not implemented in hardware. The exception-service routine may emulate the required operation in software.

The return from the exception-service routine should be performed with the instruction

SUBS PC, LR, #4

11.4 Instruction Access Violation

This exception occurs if the processor tries to access an instruction at a non-existing memory location.

The return from the exception-service routine should be performed with the instruction

SUBS PC, LR, #4

11.5 Data Access Violation

This exception occurs if the processor tries to access data at a non-existing memory location.

In this case, the return from the exception-service routine should be performed with the instruction

SUBS PC, LR, #8

11.6 Nested Interrupts

When two or more interrupts or exceptions occur at different priority levels, causing the processor to enter different modes of operation, their servicing can proceed immediately because the banked registers in various modes are used to save the critical information about the interrupted program. However, if multiple interrupts can occur at the same priority level, typically multiple IRQ requests, then it is necessary to nest the exception-service routines. This includes saving the contents of the banked link register, LR_mode, on the stack before enabling subsequent requests. Before returning from the corresponding exception-service routine, the contents of the register must be restored.

11.7 Exception Processing Example

The following example shows how the exception vector table can be set up, and how the exception-service routines can be organized. We will use a hardware IRQ interrupt as an example of an exception-service routine.

As shown in Table 4, the exception vector table must occupy the fixed memory locations in the address range 0x000 to 0x01C. Each word in this table must be an instruction that causes the program execution to go to the corresponding exception-service routine. This requires the program counter to be loaded with the address of the first instruction in the exception-service routine. This can be accomplished with load instructions

```
LDR PC, =EXCEPTION_SERVICE_ROUTINE_NAME
```

Figure 5 illustrates the structure of the code that can be used.

```
.text
.global _start
LDR PC, =_start           /* Go to the beginning of the MAIN */
                          /* program. */

LDR PC, =SERVICE_UND    /* Unimplemented instruction. */
LDR PC, =SERVICE_SVC    /* Software interrupt. */
LDR PC, =SERVICE_ABT_INST /* Failed instruction access. */
LDR PC, =SERVICE_ABT_DATA /* Failed data access. */
.word 0                  /* Null entry for address 0x014. */
LDR PC, =SERVICE_IRQ    /* Hardware IRQ interrupt. */
LDR PC, =SERVICE_FIQ    /* Hardware FIQ interrupt. */

/* The main program. */
_start: ...
.
.
.

/* Service routine for IRQ interrupts. */
SERVICE_IRQ:
.
.
.
SUBS PC, LR, #4           /* Return to interrupted program. */

/* Service routine for software interrupts. */
SERVICE_SVC:
.
.
.
MOVS PC, LR               /* Return to interrupted program. */
```

Figure 5. Code used to set up the exception processing.

Observe that 0x000 is inserted in address location 0x014, because this vector location is not allocated to servicing an exception. Observe also that the return from the exception-service routines used as an example is done as explained in sections 11.2 and 11.2.1.

12 Input/Output Operations

Most I/O devices are accessed by means of their memory-mapped registers. When a program accesses such devices, it is important that each access is made to an actual register. In a processor with a data cache, it is essential to ensure that the cached data is not used instead of the current values in the I/O device registers. In effect, the data cache has to be bypassed when reading or writing the registers in I/O devices. The ARM processor does not have separate instructions for reading and writing the contents of I/O registers. Instead, all I/O devices must have their registers mapped into a memory address region that will not be cached by the processor. This can be accomplished if the processor data cache is disabled completely, or if the processor's memory management unit (MMU) is set up such that appropriate regions of memory are designated as non-cacheable. The procedure for setting up the MMU and data cache is beyond the scope of this document.

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